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Educational Research Bulletin

THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS

R. H. Eckelberry
Ohio State University

In this day of state and national educational associations and educational conferences of many kinds, a study of earlier examples of cooperative effort in the solution of educational problems is interesting and instructive. One of the most important among the early educational associations in the United States had its headquarters in Cincinnati and is, therefore, of particular interest to students of education in the Middle West.

A local educational association known as the "Western Academic Institute and Board of Education" was organized at Cincinnati in 1829. Little is known about it, but we do know that in 1831 it called "the first general convention of the teachers of the Western country," which met at Cincinnati in 1831 and which organized the more comprehensive association known as the "Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers." This "College of Teachers," as it was commonly called, included within its active membership not only teachers but others interested in the improvement of education from all parts of the West, as well as some from the East. Its annual meetings continued from 1831 to 1845, although its period of greatest vitality and influence ended about 1840.

In the opinion of the writer, the history of American education affords no finer example of a real professional spirit than that displayed by this association. No educational group in our day has shown a bolder spirit in attacking traditional conceptions or has had — considering circumstances — a broader program of educational reform. The existence of several accounts of the activities of this organization attests the importance accorded to it by students of American education.[1] It is not the purpose of the present article to provide another account of the activities of the association but rather to discuss briefly the conditions which gave rise to the organization and its relation to other movements of the time, points concerning which, in the opinion of the writer, there have existed certain misapprehensions on the part of some who have dealt with the subject.

Some have believed that the origin and certain important features of the College of Teachers were due to conditions peculiar to the West, a pioneer country.[2] The view here defended is

(1) These accounts include:
Hansen, Oscar Allen. *Early Educational Leadership in the Ohio Valley: A Study of Educational Reconstruction through the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, 1829—41.* 1923. 120 pp. (Journal of Educational Research Monographs, No. 5).
Hinsdale, B. A., and Mary L., "The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers," *Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1898-99, 1707-43.
Marino, Anthony. *The Beginnings of State and Interstate Teachers' Organizations in Ohio.* Master's Thesis, Ohio State University, 1917. (Typewritten).
(2) For a presentation of this view see in particular Mr. Hansen's monograph.

that the activity of the College was but one manifestation of educational movements common to all parts of the country.

During the third and fourth decades of the century, the time of the origin and activity of the College of Teachers, was a period of great educational activity in the United States; movements for educational reform were by no means confined to the West. Not only was it the age of John D. Pierce, in Michigan, and Samuel Lewis, in Ohio, but also of Gideon Hawley, in New York—who came just a little earlier—James G. Carter and Horace Mann, in Massachusetts, and Henry Barnard, in Connecticut and Rhode Island.

> By the fourth decade of the century, the great educational revival, or, more narrowly, the common-school revival was well under way. Never had anything like it been seen in the history of the world. Men of all kinds and classes in all progressive countries were awakening to the necessity of popular education. We need not inquire carefully concerning the causes of this great awakening; in fact they cannot be made altogether plain. . . . We see the awakening as a fact and that the time for it had come. In our own country, the states that had public-school systems were seized with a desire to improve them; the states that had none, with a desire to create them. Some of our best-known educational agencies date from this time; educational departments in state governments, normal schools, teachers' institutes, the superintendency, the developed grade school, articulated state school systems, and district school libraries, while educational literature received a great impulse. It was in the midst of this storm and stress that the college of professional teachers was founded.[1]

One of the most important educational movements during the late twenties and the thirties was the formation of associations of teachers and friends of education.

The movement for the formation of educational associations antedates by several years the formation of the Western Academic Institute. The School Association of the County of Middlesex, Connecticut, was in existence as early as May, 1799.[2] In 1824, a group of about fifty teachers and friends of education in New England met at Boston for the purpose of forming an association for the advancement of education, which apparently was to be interstate or national in scope. A committee was appointed to draw up plans and to make a public statement of the purposes of the proposed association; the statement was printed in the *American Journal of Education* in 1826. Failure to agree upon the appointment of an agent or representative caused the society to disband, but many of its members later became active in the American Institute of Instruction. In 1826, the editor of the *American Journal of Education* published "Proposals for Forming a Society of Education," emphasizing strongly the advantages to be derived from the interchange of views, and pointing out the benefits that had resulted from the activity of educational associations in France and Holland. In 1828, the editor again took up the subject in a discussion of "Advantages to Be Expected from the Formation of a Society for the Improvement of Education." By the beginning of the fourth decade, the movement had borne fruit; there had been organized not only the Western Academic Institute, but many other associations.

> The remark has now become commonplace, that *instructors have hitherto* been too much isolated; that the only mode of rendering their experience available to the community, or of promoting their own improvement, and of elevating the character of the profession, is to form *associations*, ... where their common interests and duties, and occupations shall be subjects of consideration. . . . . We rejoice to see, in the associations springing up in various directions . . . . . the evidence that these views are rapidly pervading our country.[3]

(1) Hinsdale, *op. cit.*, pp. 740–41. Cf. *Academician*, pp. 319–20.

(2) *American Journal of Education*, 14:397, (1840). So far as the writer knows this was the earliest educational association in the United States.

(3) *American Annals of Education and Instruction*, 1:366–67, August, 1831.

These associations "springing up in various directions" included some more or less local in scope, and, at least, two, beside the College of Teachers, that were national in their program and their membership. The American Lyceum was originated by Josiah Holbrook, who from 1826 devoted his whole time to its promotion. As stated in a circular by Holbrook in 1828, his plan was "to establish on a uniform plan, in every town and village, a society for mutual improvement and the *improvement of schools*," united into county, state, and national systems.[1] Local, county, and state lyceums developed rapidly, and the national lyceum held its first meeting in New York in May, 1831. The constitution adopted at this meeting declared the objects of the lyceum to be "the advancement of education, *especially common schools*, and the general diffusion of knowledge."[2] During the annual meetings, held from 1831 to 1839, addresses and reports were made by many of the most prominent leaders in American education.

Probably the most important, and certainly the most permanent, of all the early educational associations was the American Institute of Instruction. The preliminary meeting, which had been called by the "State Committee of Lyceums," met in Boston, March 15, 1830, and was called to order by Josiah Holbrook. It was voted that "it was expedient to form a permanent association of persons engaged and interested in the business of instruction." A committee was appointed, which drew up a constitution and issued the call for the first meeting, which was held in Boston on August 19, 1830.[3] During the August meeting the members adopted the proposed constitution and listened to an excellent program on different phases of education.

If additional evidence were needed that the College of Teachers was just one among the educational associations then in existence, it would be found in the editorial comment of the *Annals of Education*, on the receipt of the first published proceedings of the College. It said:

> We believe our readers will unite with us in rejoicing at the success of this association, and in cordial wishes that it may go on and prosper. And indeed no reason exists why it should not act as efficiently as any of our eastern associations. The West is continually sending for the ablest, and most active, and most energetic of our young men.[4]

In the third place, it may be pointed out that many of the features of the work of the College of Teachers were common to the other associations of the time. In most cases the membership included not only teachers, but also other persons interested in education. The Middlesex County Association included in its membership teachers and any others who wished to promote the objects of the association.[5] The proposals of the *American Journal of Education* in 1826 pointed out that such an association ought to include "professional men and teachers as well as other persons interested in education and capable of promoting it." The Boston meeting of 1824 included not only teachers but "friends of education." The Lyceum, likewise, was catholic in its membership; it was a New York "State Convention of the Friends of Education" held at Utica in 1831 that "resolved itself into a state lyceum" and called a national convention of lyceums. The committee on the constitution appointed at the preliminary meeting of the American Institute of Instruction had proposed to call

(1) *American Journal of Education*, 14:535-36, (1840).
(2) *Op. cit.*, 538-39.
(3) *Op. cit.*, 2:33, (1827). Since 1830, the Institute has held annual meetings devoted to the improvement of education. Its membership has been confined chiefly, but not wholly, to New England.
(4) 5:230 (1835).
(5) *Annals of Education*, 1:367, August, 1831.

the newly-formed society the "New England Association of Teachers," but, since several of the Middle, Southern, and Western States were "represented in the Convention, and many persons, not teachers were desirous of belonging to the society, a more comprehensive name and plan was adopted."[1]

The College of Teachers certainly discussed a wide range of topics, but so also did the other two associations. The American Institute during its earlier years—while the College of Teachers was active—discussed such "up-to-date" subjects as a board of education for every state, compulsory attendance, female education, moral education, gymnastic exercises and the health of students, and the infant school.[2] The programs of the American Lyceum included discussions of:

> The condition and improvement of schools, the schoolhouse, studies, books, apparatus, methods of instruction and discipline, the professional training of teachers, and the whole field of legislation and administration were fully and widely discussed.[3]

One of the best examples of a subject of present-day interest which was considered by the College of Teachers and also attracted attention in general educational circles, was the health of students. During the twenties and thirties there was a general awakening to the seriousness of this problem throughout the country. In 1828, in discussing the advantages to be derived from the formation of a society for the improvement of education, the *American Journal of Education* said:

> Such a society might consider, for instance, *such subjects as are now much discussed*, infant schools, monitorial instruction, *physical education*, and others of the same sort.[4]

During the year 1827–28, the same journal devoted forty some pages to the question of physical education and the health of students, including the review of three books on the subject, the announcement of the forthcoming publication of another, a quotation from Locke's *Thoughts* on the proper training of the body in the early life, and other editorial and quoted matter. The same year another journal said:

> The necessity of a thorough system of exercise to preserve the health and vigor of young men, who are pursuing a course of education, is beginning to be extensively felt. . . . . It is gratifying to observe that this subject is taking strong hold of the public mind.[5]

In 1827, twenty-five students of the Andover Theological Seminary formed a "Mechanical Association" to promote health "by a regular system of mechanical exercise," and by 1831, the Rensselear School had adopted a system of exercises for the improvement of the health of the students. The question of health education was one of the most prominent in the discussions of the American Institute. One of the two chief claims made for the manual-labor school, which was flourishing at the same time that the College of Teachers was active, was that it benefited the health of the students. The Society for the Promotion of Manual Labor in Literary Institutions, in its instructions to its general agent in 1831, said:

> Those who founded this society were convinced from experiments . . . . that by judicious plans, the expenses of obtaining an education may be so much diminished, as to place its privileges within the reach of every youth of talents, and at the same time diminish the fearful waste of health and life which now attends literary pursuits. . . . . [6]

(1) *American Journal of Education* 2:27 (1827). The constitution provided that "Any gentleman, of good moral character, interested in the subject of education, may become a member of this Institute."

(2) For a complete list of the topics discussed, see the index to the first 26 volumes of the *Proceedings and Lectures of the American Institute of Instruction*, in *American Journal of Education*, 2:241–55 (1827).

(3) *American Journal of Education*, 16:312 (1842). For a list of the titles of papers and addresses at the various meetings of the National Lyceum, see pp. 539–53.

(4) 3:80. Italics mine.

(5) *Quarterly Register and Journal of the American Education Society*, 1:17–19, October, 1827.

(6) *Annals of Education*, 2:93, January 15, 1832. See also Anderson, L. F., "The Manual-Labor-School Movement," in *Educational Review*, 46:369–88, November, 1913.

Finally, it may be observed that many of the most active and influential members of the College of Teachers were not pioneers by birth and training but came from the older communities in the East or from Europe and presumably were familiar with educational needs and movements elsewhere. The founder, and for many years the president, of the College, was Albert Picket. He had lived in New York, where for many years he conducted a flourishing academy, the Manhattan School. He and his son, J. W. Picket, were the authors of several school textbooks, and edited the *Academician*, the oldest important educational periodical in this country. During their residence in New York, the Pickets were president and corresponding secretary, respectively, of an incorporated educational association, the New York Teachers' Society, which held its first (?) annual meeting September 12, 1818.[1] According to the statement of a committee appointed at this meeting, the aims of the society were: "to collect into a focus whatever information can be procured and whatever improvements have been proposed in professional subjects"; to promote the gradation of schools, the organization of high schools, the establishment of old-age provisions for teachers; and to "vindicate to ourselves the name and character of a liberal profession."[2] A few years before the founding of the College of Teachers, the Pickets moved to Cincinnati, where they conducted a flourishing school for girls.

Alexander Kinmont, who was closely associated with Picket in the organization of the association and who at the meeting in 1831 gave the address explanatory of the "objects and designs" of the proposed society, was a native of Scotland and a student at the universities of St. Andrews and Edinburgh. He came to America in 1823 and moved to Cincinnati in 1827, where he conducted an academy for boys. E. D. Mansfield, another man very active in the work of the College, was a product of the education and culture of the East. He graduated successively from West Point, Princeton, and the law school at Litchfield, Connecticut. His father was a teacher and a man of science all his life and was acquainted with the intellectual and educational leaders of the day, many of whom were visitors in the Mansfield home. Among those with whom Edward Mansfield thus came into contact were President Timothy Dwight, of Yale College; Samuel A. Foote, governor of Connecticut, senator and representative in Congress and author of *Foote's Resolutions;* DeWitt Clinton; Mrs. Emma Willard, the famous protagonist of the educational rights of women; and Nathaniel Carter, editor of the *New York Statesman.*

Among others active in the organization, Dr. Bishop, president of Miami University, who at the meeting in 1831 gave the opening address, was a native of Scotland and a graduate of the University of Edinburgh; Lyman Beecher, president of Lane Seminary, had been one of the founders of the Connecticut Education Society; Calvin E. Stowe was a native of Massachusetts and a graduate of Bowdoin College and Andover Theological Seminary and had been professor at Dartmouth before going to Lane Seminary. Men like W. H. McGuffey, Dr. Daniel Drake, and Samuel Lewis, who in their own education were more distinctly products of the West, could hardly have been ignorant of educational movements in other parts of the country. That all these men were influenced quite as much by the educational movements of the time as by conditions peculiar to the West, would seem to be a safe conclusion.

(1) *Academician*, Title Page, 1:133–34 (footnote), and 1:186, August 15, and October 19, 1818.

(2) Albert Picket was a member of this committee. This association thus anticipated by several years some of the reforms in which the College of Teachers was interested. It seems, however, to have had but a brief existence.

The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers arose at a time when movements for educational reform were general throughout the United States. It was only one among numerous associations of teachers and friends of education which arose about the same time; and its program of reform was similar in many respects to those of other associations. Many of its most active members were men who had been in contact with educational leaders in the East or who had been educated under eastern influences. In the light of these facts, are we not justified in concluding that, instead of being a unique product of frontier conditions, the College of Teachers was an important manifestation of the Great Awakening?

A COMPARISON OF THREE GEOGRAPHY TEXTS

LOIS KELLER AND LUELLA PRESSEY
Ohio State University

The three texts selected for this study were published at intervals during the past forty years. All were intended for use in the upper elementary grades and all have been widely used. Book 1 appeared in 1885; Book 2, in 1901; and Book 3, in 1922. The writers of this article believe the books to be representative of the texts printed in the period under consideration.

The results of the comparisons made will be presented under eight heads, as follows: appearance and size, presentation of questions, arrangement of material on physical forces, division of material on United States geography, maps, illustrations, indices, and statistics. A few conclusions will follow the discussion of the various points.

APPEARANCE AND SIZE

The two older books are large and unwieldy in size, the third is of a size and shape much more convenient for use by the child or the teacher. Obviously, geographies must be larger than textbooks on other subjects so that the maps may be large enough to be of value. There is no need, however, of publishing a book with such dimensions that it is cumbersome to handle. The ordinary school desk is practically covered by an open geography of the large size, allowing no room for the other materials which a pupil will frequently need to use at the same time.

PRESENTATION OF QUESTIONS

Map questions.—Eight percent of the contents of Book 1 consists of map questions. Most of the questions merely call for the location of places on the map without any regard to why they should be located. Very few of these places are mentioned in the text, so that even if they are properly located no further knowledge of the city, bay, or cape is given with which to tie the memory of its location.

Book 2 contains many map questions, but they are scattered throughout the book in such a manner that it is impossible to ascertain the proportion of space given to them.

Book 3 lists no map questions as such but lists many problems that require the intelligent use of the map in their solution. A question about an illustration can often be answered by looking at a map.

Review questions.—Book 1 is arranged in a way which made it exceedingly simple for the use of the teacher of that time. Each page is a collection of bare fact statements. At the foot of every page—and oftener if one topic did not fill a page—are questions to be asked by the teacher. She had only to ask the printed questions and look at the part above to see if the pupil answered properly in the words of the book. The dominant purpose of the author and the publisher seems to have been to present materials in the best form for memorization. An example of one of these statements of doubtful value is as follows:

> A volcano is a mountain which sends forth flames, melted rock, clouds of steam, ashes, or other heated substance from an opening called a crater.

Book 2 does not list questions at the conclusion of each of the topics, but it outlines the contents of the preceding lesson.

Book 3 presents questions and problems most of which require supplementary work for their solution. The answers to such questions are not to be found in the reading directly preceding them but frequently the pupil must use some information previously gained and link it with other materials at hand in order to form some conclusion of his own in answering a question or solving a problem.

Arrangement of Material on Physical Forces

Book 1 allots five percent of its pages to physical geography and Book 2, fourteen percent. This part of Book 1 is a collection of definitions of physical forms with nothing further concerning them. Book 2 gives much space to long technical explanations of the physical forces and shows many intricate structural diagrams illustrating these. While the material is logically explained and many of the diagrams are good, this isolation of such explanations does not enhance but greatly hinders the use of any such information by the pupil. The idea of the arrangement explained in the Preface claims it is of fundamental importance that the child should first learn these basic facts that it may later apply them in their proper relation to various countries.

Book 3 says that the older method used in constructing geography texts was a systematic one. Children were first taught about weather, climate, streams, trade, and other ideas abstractly. Then, after acquiring all these, they were supposed to be able to apply them to the study of the countries of the world. The author concludes this section by saying that such methods have bored tens of thousands of children and given thousands of teachers headaches.

Book 3 places scientific facts where they have some relations. Physical geography is not isolated to one section of the book, but such facts are put where they function as natural parts of an explanation.

Division of Material on United States Geography

While Book 1 and Book 2 take up the political study of regions even to the separate study of each of the United States, Book 3 uses as a basis for study the various regions into which continents are divided. The regions are fundamentally economic, but because all physical conditions, position, relief, structure, vegetation, and climate, are given due weight and prominence they fall little short of being natural or physical regions. Such a procedure does not make it necessary to describe similar adjoining regions of Ohio and Indiana twice or to describe the cotton industry in both Alabama and Mississippi; nor does it sacrifice political geography when it differentiates between two cities both lying in the Mississippi Valley with similar physical surroundings but unlike political environments.

MAPS

Book 1 contains twenty-nine maps. These are detailed, and contain so many locations not used by the pupils for whom they are intended that confusion would result. The maps for the various sections of the United States are all given in different scales, giving pupils distorted ideas as to area. Each section map covers an allotted space without regard to the number of square miles it represents. Such an arrangement makes Maine appear larger than California. This defect is remedied in Book 2 for the maps of the United States are all on the same scale with but one exception and this one is presented just twice the size of the others.

Book 2 contains twenty-four large colored maps. A physical and a political map of each continent is given. The number seems small in comparison with the number in Book 1 when one notes that two kinds are given in Book 2, but the difference lies in the fact that the former book divides the United States into more sections. Book 2 contains twenty-five pages of maps in an Appendix not counted in those listed before. These maps answer the same purpose as those of an atlas.

The maps in Book 3 are not crowded in details. In fact the addition of the continental railways would be a point in their favor. These are only shown on the large map of the United States. The railways would be of far more importance commercially than the New York Barge Canal which is almost always represented in earlier texts. This book contains thirty-five pages of colored maps.

ILLUSTRATIONS

The figures given in Table I show one of the striking differences in the three books. The diagrams and the black and white maps of Book 3 afford every variety of map from which valuable comparisons can be made and worthwhile conclusions drawn. The diagrams graphically represent facts that would not be as readily grasped in any other form. Many statistics are given by graphs.

The pictures also enhance the usefulness of the book. Book 2 contains more than three times as many illustrations as Book 1 and Book 3 over five times as many as Book 1. The pictures of Book 2 were also much better selected than those of Book 1. The captions of the pictures in Book 3 make them especially valuable. In addition to the title of the picture many suggestive questions are given. Some examples of these are: "Is this the rainy or the dry season?" "What goods may the caravan be carrying?" "What would happen to the Laplanders if they lost their reindeer?" "What in this picture tells you why a city grew up here?"

TABLE I. NUMBER OF ILLUSTRATIONS IN EACH OF THE THREE BOOKS

	Book 1	Book 2	Book 3
Pictures.....	70	250	384
Diagrams and black and white maps ...	15	60	222

INDICES

The index of Book 1 shows a pronouncing vocabulary of 1,435 proper names with no page references. Only a very small number of them would be retained by a child using the book. Book 2 contains 1,620 names, but these are properly indexed as to the page on which they are to be found in the text. Other names besides proper geographical names are listed, so that a user of the book who is interested in lumbering, for example, may find fifteen references to that subject listed.

Book 3 contains an index of approximately 2,000 words. In addition to the reference to the page on which one finds whether the word in question is a city, river, state, or lake, the page of the map with its location is also given. Thus if a child finds an item in a paper concerning an airplane stopping its flight at the Azores he can use the index of his geography text to find out where and what the Azores are. He may save time in looking up references by merely examining those marked in heavy type as these are most important. If an illustration of the word is given an asterisk indicates the page.

STATISTICS

Book 1 contains the following statistical tables:

1. Population of principal cities of the world.
2. Military statistics—size of army and navy.
3. Commercial statistics—trade with the United States.
4. Length of river and area of basin of principal rivers of the world.
5. Height of principal mountains of the world.
6. Agricultural statistics of the United States (Crops by states—value in dollars).
7. Religions of the world.

Book 2 contains the following tables in addition to 1, 4, and 5 in the above list:

1. Area and population of countries of the world and of each state of the United States.
2. Wealth and earnings.
3. Lakes—area, altitude, and depth.

Statistics of Book 3:

1. Countries of the world. Area-population. Population per square mile. Imports and exports per capita. Total exports and imports.
2. Area and population of the United States and possessions and occupations of the people in the States. Area in square miles. Population per square mile. Population of state. Number of persons engaged in agriculture, mining, and manufacturing. Value of all crops. Value of manufactures.
3. The world's greatest seaports. Tons entered. Tons cleared. Trade value.
4. Table of ocean distances.
5. Population of United States cities over one hundred thousand.
6. Population of United States cities over twenty thousand. (Altitude, latitude, longitude, and population).
7. Population of cities outside of the United States over one hundred thousand.

Suppose a pupil is given the problem of comparing the ports of Liverpool and New York, which book would furnish the most valuable bits of information on which to base conclusions? Which information is most needed, the fact that the Indus River is one hundred miles longer than the Rio Grande or that Porto Rico averages two and seven-tenths times as many people per square mile as Ohio? Which adds more to the understanding of a country, to know that a mountain peak of that region measures so many feet in height or that twenty-one percent of the adults of that same region are engaged in the extraction of minerals?

To sum up the comparisons of these books the following statements can be made:

1 A comparison of the three books in order shows a decided improvement in the mechanics of the books. These include improvements in the size and shape, the arrangement of the pages, the type, and the general attractiveness of the book.

2. The methods of presenting the material have changed from the mere presentation of facts in uninteresting terms to the readable presentation of geographic principles and their application. Book 3 does not contain two or three facts in every sentence as does Book 2, but lends itself to smooth reading, like an interesting story.

3. The questions have evolved from memory questions couched in the exact terms of the answer to the thought-provoking questions of the most recently published book.

(*Continued on page 349*)

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B. R. BUCKINGHAM . . . . *Editor*
JOSEPHINE MACLATCHY . *Assistant Editor*

Address all communications to the
BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

In 1825, just a century ago, the first nursery school in the United States was organized, at New Harmony, Indiana, by Robert Owen, the father of the English infant school. The use of the term "nursery" in describing this early school is a rather free interpretation of the present idea of the function of the nursery school. Perhaps the only likeness which the present school holds to that infant school of one hundred years ago is that it attempts to train the children of pre-school age, indeed, of pre-kindergarten age, the children from two to five.

Although the school age is set by the various state compulsory education laws upon the assumption that formal training should begin at six, the age of beginning to learn has not been so postponed by nature. Indeed, some modern child-psychologists are insisting that the psychological nature of the child is largely determined by his life and experience before he is six years old. Professor Gesell has said:

> Modern scientific thought and the whole trend of preventive medicine are literally forcing us to take a revised conception of education. In the old-fashioned sense school begins when the three R's begin. But in the biological sense education begins with infancy. The whole pre-school period from birth to the first molars is basically an education period quite as consequential for social welfare as the years of compulsory school attendance. The school child is father of the man, but the infant is father of the child. Life, growth, and education are always inextricably one. School may begin with a bang, but education never.[1]

Pre-school education in the United States has generally a philanthropic or clinical tang, and, if the contention of modern psychologists be true, wise training during this early period is a desirable prophylactic measure.

The increasing emphasis upon this pre-school period should arouse educators in the primary school and the kindergarten to the need of experimental study of the nature of the pre-school child. Because of its definite philosophy the kindergarten, for many years, kept itself unspotted from formal school instruction There is now, however, a wing of the kindergarten, which is fostering a closer relation between these two agencies of early education. Its interest is both kindergarten and primary. It is bringing some of the kindergarten ideas into the primary school and is introducing some formal instruction into the kindergarten. Adventurous kindergarteners are also growing interested in the nursery school.

The problems of pre-kindergarten training call for definite study. Kindergarten methods should not be applied to the nursery school unless they prove to be the methods which will best serve the age and development of these younger children. The pitfalls into which the higher phases of education have fallen should shout a warning. Subjects and methods found advantageous in one level of education are often adopted by another level. The overlapping of courses of study in modern language, literature, or science in the high school and in college is an illustration of this tendency. In a recent comparison of the high-school textbooks which had been used by the students in a certain chemistry class

(1) Gesell, Arnold. "The Downward Extension of the Kindergarten," *Childhood Education*, 2:53-59, October, 1925.

with their present college textbook, an average repetition of 48 percent was found. Since the program of the kindergarten contains little or no formal content this suggestion may seem trivial. There is, however, a real danger here.

The content of kindergarten education seems well fitted for the social training of five-year-old children, but its efficacy in this period should not be taken as a guarantee of its value as a training instrument for the pre-kindergarten child. Investigation may show that the program of education for the pre-school child should be of quite another sort. Before the few dozen nursery schools now established in the United States have increased, it behooves those interested in nursery-kindergarten-primary education to determine by experimental study those instruments of education which are best suited to the needs and capacities of the pre-school child.

In eighteenth-century paintings one is frequently able to distinguish children from grown-ups only by the fact that the children are smaller. Their costumes and head dresses are exact replicas of those of their elders. Nowadays we find these pictures very diverting; and complacently scoff at the idea, quite commonly held in those days, that a child is but a miniature man. We are not yet, however, entirely free from a tendency to interpret the child in terms of adult psychology. The surprising discrepancies between the poems which children prefer and those which adults think children will enjoy are illustrations of our tendency to misinterpret child nature. Winch has very aptly dubbed this tendency the "diminished-adult view of the child mind." He continues:

> Our own psychological processes are put into the child, diminished in strength, but similar in form. We are getting old and worn, many of us. We do not like the mechanical acquisition of new things; it is hard for us; so we say children do not like it. As a matter of fact, they do. Repetition bores us; so we say it bores the young child. As a matter of fact, he loves it. We pride ourselves on our intelligence rather than on our memory. I am not sure that we should come out really well if our intelligence were tested; we have probably, most of us, passed our upward limit years ago, but are not aware of it; though we do know that our rote memories are faulty. Without abundant associations we remember very little. Straightway we assert that the young child is like us. We teach by methods so intelligent that he does not understand us, we associate his knowledge by so many bonds, or try to, that he loses sight of what he really has to remember; and we say his memory cannot improve, knowing that our own does not.[1]

The importance of extra-curricular activities in the high school is not yet a settled matter. Athletics perhaps have the most secure place, as long as we foster the ideal of "a sound mind in a sound body." Their physical value is granted; their ethical value is the question.

Games should produce good sportsmanship. But do they, actually? Why is it "distasteful to them (pupils) to give a yell of courteous welcome to greet their opponents as they come on the field?"[1] Why are they "inclined to give expressions of joy at the injury, serious or minor, to any player of the opposing team?" That spirit undoubtedly exists in many schools, and it is a very serious matter. The high schools cannot escape their responsibility in moulding the characters of their students. The athletic contest is an acid test of school morale. The attitude of the pupil on the field or on the sidelines reflects success or failure in that most subtle—and perhaps most important—aspect of teaching, character-training.

The inter-school or intramural game

(1) Winch, W. H. *Teaching Beginners to Read in England.* Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1925, p. 9–10. (Journal of Educational Research Monographs, No. 8).

(2) Barton, A. W. Jr. "The Importance of Extra-Curricular Activities in Junior and Senior High Schools," *The High School Quarterly,* 13:238–42, July, 1925.

offers an opportunity for developing a lofty spirit of courtesy and sportsmanship. If ethical training is one of our great educational objectives, we must be careful not to let this particular and rich opportunity slip.

A CASE OF CONGENITAL WORD-BLINDNESS

ELMER BOWERS
Ohio State University

Reading disability may be due to a number of causes. It is obvious that such factors as low intelligence, optical defect, lack of interest, lack of opportunity, or poor teaching may result in a more or less pronounced reading disability. A cause which is less common, but probably more serious, is word-blindness. This defect may of course be either congenital or acquired. Dr. Hinshelwood has given a plausible and rather well-supported theory of the condition[1] which was itself first specifically pointed out by Kussmaul[2] in 1877. Some of the peculiarities of the cases of word-blindness are little short of amazing. The victim may be normal in every other respect, may even, in cases which are not congenital, be able to read a once-acquired foreign language and yet be unable to comprehend the simplest words, perhaps not even the letters of the alphabet. Congenital cases present a tremendous problem to the teacher when they are met, for she is usually unacquainted with the true nature of the defect and is completely at a loss in her attempt to explain the difficulty. Even if the teacher is cognizant of the nature of the condition, she will not have the time to devote to the necessary special treatment of the individual case.

Fortunately congenital word-blindness is relatively rare. The general belief is that the condition is due to a defect of the left angular and supramarginal gyri, especially the former. In the acquired word-blindness right lateral homonymous hemianopsia is commonly associated with the condition, while in the congenital cases this is practically never found.

The congenital types seem to present the greater problem, for they are more likely to become school cases. Learning for them is also probably more difficult than is learning for individuals having the acquired condition.

Of the congenital type Dr. Hinshelwood recognizes three degrees: (1) congenital word-blindness to be reserved exclusively for those pure and grave cases of defect . . . . which constitute a very definite and well-defined group; (2) congenital dyslexia to be reserved for those slighter degrees of defect, which are more frequently met with, characterized by a much greater difficulty in learning to read than is experienced by the average child, but not sufficiently grave to be regarded as pathological; and (3) congenital alexia to be reserved for those cases where the defect in the visual memory center is only a part of a general cerebral deterioration [3]

The following case illustrates rather well the condition of congenital word-blindness, and although there is some general retardation, it is probably not sufficient to make the term congenital alexia applicable.

(1) Hinshelwood, James. *Congenital Word-Blindness.* H. K. Lewis, & Co., Ltd. London, 1917. 112 pp.

(2) Kussmaul, A. "Disturbances of Speech," *Ziemssen's Cyclopedia*, 1877. v. 14.

(3) *Op. cit.* p. 94. A rather complete bibliography is appended.

Rozell M.—This boy, ten years old has been promoted to grade III-A on the basis of his general ability, although he cannot read more than a few simple words. His rating in arithmetic is good, but our tests ranked his ability as equivalent to that of the second grade. He comes from a family of four, the father is said to have shown a slight speech defect in childhood and to have been slow in learning to read, a sister did not learn to read until she was in the third or fourth grade, although she is now, at the age of fourteen, a prolific reader. Otherwise the hereditary and developmental history of this boy is negative. On a younger child, now four years old, no data were obtained.

To get some notion of the range of the boy's ability we used a large sheet of paper, showing all the letters of the alphabet, both capital and small, arranged in a variety of ways, and the ten digits also variously combined. The results were illuminating.

The boy knew the letters and recognized all at sight except capital *U* and *V*, and small *q*. These letters he consistently fails to recognize, and he occasionally stumbles on other letters, but at such times, by repeating a number of the letters which precede the misnamed letter, he can get it. This is perhaps done by an appeal to auditory memory. The influence of auditory memory in his recognition of letters is indicated by the occasional confusion of letters having similar sounds, as, *c* and *z*, *m* and *n*, *u* and *q*, *v*, *d*, and *c*. He knows all the digits and can count indefinitely.

He knows only a few common words, such as *cat*, *mat*, *rat*, *boy*, and these with a few others constitute his entire reading vocabulary. Some of these he has learned to recognize, probably through interest. The boy says that there are about thirty-two words that he can recognize. He cannot derive *at* from *cat;* he knows the latter, but the former remains a closed book to him despite innumerable suggestions regarding their similarity. As for reading sentences, he cannot do it at all. It is so utterly difficult for him that he apparently cannot be sufficiently stimulated to make it seem worth while to keep at the task long enough to learn a few words to add to his thirty-two. The factor of interest undoubtedly plays a great role in such cases.

By the above test and the personal and school history we were able to rule out such possible causes of the reading disability as visual defect, lack of opportunity, poor teaching, and feeble-mindedness. The indications pointed to a diagnosis of congenital word-blindness, due, as indicated above, to some defect of the angular gyrus.

Further tests indicated that the boy's general level was about nine years, or one year retarded. The Binet test, however, gives him a mental age of only 7.5 years, with an I. Q. of 75. This test appeals so strongly to visual memory and vocabulary, however, that cases of this type are rather severely penalized by it.

An interesting by-product of the major defect is a speech defect, which, so far as we can learn, is merely a matter of habit, and a sort of dissimulation to cover up as much as possible the defect. When asked to read, or answer difficult vocabulary questions, the boy seeks refuge in mumbling, and thus gets credit for a speech defect. A hospital examination has revealed that the speech organs are intact, and observation shows that the boy exhibits no defect when he knows what he is talking about.

The boy's father is making some attempt to teach him to read, following suggestions based largely upon the technique of Dr. Hinshelwood.

SCHOOL OPPORTUNITY FOR PRACTICE IN CONDUCTING A MEETING

FLORA L. SCOTT
Audubon Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio

An eighth-grade mathematics class after discussing some form of organization for the conducting of their class work finally decided to carry on their daily lessons in the form of a program such as a club might have. The teacher was well satisfied with their decision, because, in a very natural way, it placed responsibility for parts of the class procedure upon the members of the class. Hearing of this possibility in class organization, an algebra section also decided to conduct their class in program form.

In order to carry on these meetings each of the classes soon discovered a need for rules of order, so they discussed how to conduct a meeting and how to make and put a motion.

Whether the teacher was in the room or not—and she often allowed hall duty to detain her in order to give them practice alone—the class opened. The chairman called the meeting to order; the secretary wrote a list of absentees to leave on the teacher's desk and read the minutes of the last meeting. The chairman called on various members of the class for the answers of the work assigned the day before. Since the home work was planned as a review, the class as a whole seldom made mistakes in checking it. Someone was almost sure to notice the mistake and correct it. If the entire class made the same mistake that was an indication that work had been assigned before the class was ready for it. This gave the teacher a better idea of the thoroughness with which certain points had been understood and gave a truer appreciation of the places which required special emphasis or review. After correction of the assignment, the chairman sometimes continued to preside or asked the teacher to take the chair, according to the plan for that particular day's work.

Not being accustomed to this method, the algebra class was noisy at first. So the teacher asked the pupils to discuss their mode of entrance into the room, telling them that when they were satisfied with it, she thought she would be. The discussion was interesting. It required some moments of aimless talking for them to realize that they made no progress without a motion before the house. Then one of the noisiest boys moved that "we come in without talking at all every day." It was astonishing to see how seriously they considered this. Many voted for it, even though it meant not a word spoken after they passed the door of the room while classes were still passing, but the motion was lost. The motion finally carried was that "we should not talk very loudly, and we should get ready to work right away."

After this preliminary orientation the programs continued smoothly in the ninth-grade class. The requirements for the work in algebra allowed little leeway in the initiation of auxiliary activities, but the pupils were well satisfied with the plan at the end of the semester. The teacher was pleased, because, in addition to the advantages of practice in self- and group-control which she had anticipated, she found that it gave her more opportunity for correcting papers. She had been prepared to sacrifice some efficiency for a valuable social result but found that after a few days of practice she was freer than before. While the daily assign-

ments were being corrected by the class, she was able to pass from desk to desk and make suggestions and give individual verbal corrections which were much more effective than written notes on returned home-work papers.

The following is a typical program in the algebra class:

Chairman: The meeting will come to order. The secretary will take the roll. We'll have the minutes of the last meeting.

Secretary: The meeting was called to order by the chairman and the minutes were read, after which we corrected our home work; and the classes were turned over to Miss S. and she gave us several new problems to do. She then assigned our home work and explained it, and the class adjourned.

Chairman: Is there any old business?

J. H. was to give the table of square roots. He did not know it yesterday.

H. The square root of one is one plus or minus.

C. That is what he said yesterday.

H. The square root of one is plus or minus one. The square root of two is—

M. That is not right.

Chairman: What shall we do about it?

T. Suppose H. looks it up and reports on it tomorrow.

Miss S. If he is to do that, will someone help him to be sure he has it right before learning it?

Chairman: Who will help him? All right T. Is there any more old business?

A. E. was to give the slogan he did not have yesterday.

Chairman: E.

E. The first number squared plus two times the first plus the second—

W. It should be "times." (He writes it for E.)

E. I meant "times." The first number squared plus two times the first number times the second number plus the second number squared.

Chairman: We better have that again tomorrow. Is there any more old business? . . . . Is there any new business? . . . . We'll correct our home work.

(The chairman then called on people for answers, which the class corrected when wrong).

Chairman: Have you any questions to ask?

A. I would like to see that last problem put on the board.

Chairman: J. put it on the board, please. Are there any more questions? . . . . Collect the papers. Miss S. will take over the class.

In the eighth-grade class the procedure was much the same except that the rotation of office was frequent, while in the ninth grade the same officers were retained throughout. The quotation given from the daily proceedings of the ninth grade was fairly representative of many days in the eighth-grade class also, except that business arithmetic replaced algebra and incidentally allowed greater variety.

Usually the preliminary part of the program required no supervision. One day, however, the teacher was summoned into the hall just as the checking of the home work began and was delayed for some minutes. Much talking ensued. Upon her return she found that the work had not been completed. When the pupils were asked what the difficulty was, no one volunteered a reply, but all the pupils agreed that the trouble should be located in order to avoid the repetition of the mistake. As a means of locating the difficulty, the teacher gave a number of questions in answer to which the pupils gave their opinions. A tabulation of the replies to these questions follows. Omissions are not indicated. Some replies contained two elements and were listed twice, since it was desirable to secure the sum total of the opinions of the class rather than to avoid any possible weighting. Twenty-seven pupils were present.

1. Can we check our own home work?
   Yes. (26)
2. Why did we not today?
   Teacher out of room. (8)
   Some fool and don't act right. (8)
   All talked at once. (6)
   Wrong answer was given by a pupil. (6)
   The chairman was new and did not quiet them. (5)
   We asked others for the answer. (2)
   Don't know. (1)
3. What should be different in order to have it properly managed?
   We should raise our hands. (2)
   Maybe if we have another chance we'll do better. (2)
   Have a better chairman. (2)
   Stricter rules. (1)
   Teacher should watch. (1)
   One person should read all the problems. (1)

Not the chairman but the teacher start the class. (1)
Ninth period (study hall after school) for a week. (1)
Have a sergeant-at-arms. (1)
Have written work. (1)
I think we do not manage ourselves enough and when we do we get excited. (1)

4. What do you like best about our class?
The chairman and secretary. (12)
The way the teacher manages it. (2)
It is more free. (1)
Nothing. (1)
Taking care of ourselves. (1)
Every one gets his home work checked. (1)
I don't know. (1)
The boys and girls do some of the work. (1)
Almost all get a chance to answer. (1)
Both the chairman and the teacher. (1)
The little tests. (These were brief, completion, and single-word-answer tests.) (1)

5. What do you like least about our work?
The way the chairman manages it. (4)
The way the class acts. (3)
The way the class does when the teacher is out of the room. (1)
There isn't anything I like least. (1)
There is not enough drill. (1)
The way the answers are discussed. (1)
We talk out too much. (1)
The arrangement of the seats. (1)
Without a chairman. (1)

6. Do I give too much home work?
No. (15)
Sometimes. (6)
Enough. (2)
Yes. (1)
Just on picture show days. (Moving pictures are shown on certain days in the study hall, thus shortening some study periods.) (1)

7. Do I give too little home work?
No. (14)
Right. (2)

8. Do I ask you to manage yourselves too much?
No. (24)
Yes. (3)

9. Do I ask you to manage yourselves too little?
Yes. (12)
No. (11)
Just right. (1)

10. If some children do not manage themselves properly, ought we do something about it? If so, what?
Keep them for ninth-period study hall. (12)
No. (8)
Give them more home work. (3)
Give them another trial. (3)
I think we are old enough to behave. (2)
I think children of our age ought not to be punished, they ought to know enough to behave. (1)
In certain ways, ninth period or be sent out of the room. (1)
Take off their marks and their parents will find it out. (2)
In certain ways, but not by making them stay after school. (1)
They ought to be punished. (1)
Talk to their parents. (1)
Make them write saying they won't do it again. (1)
Make them write a composition. (1)

Since this is a description of a club plan for conducting classes, and since the above questionnaire is given to illustrate the working of a plan at a point where difficulty arose, no comment upon the suggestions is needed. It is sufficient to say that the scheme was valuable for the teacher, that it served as a starting point for class discussion of self-guidance, social consideration, and class approval or disapproval instead of punishments, and that it was a good example of comparatively mature judgments upon the part of the children.

From these questions and answers the class decided that the newness of the chairman combined with the impatience of the class had been responsible for their failure in checking the home work. They concluded that a little consideration and self-control would avert a repetition of such a difficulty. While they did not learn everything in one trial, they checked their own papers satisfactorily from that time on. In general, the club plan for carrying on our class proved more popular and profitable as the semester continued. These experiences are simple illustrations of how regular school situations may be utilized for practice in developing valuable social controls.

A COMPARISON OF THREE GEOGRAPHY TEXTS

(*Continued from page 341*)

4. Book 3 instead of teaching isolated facts of physical and mathematical geography brings in these facts in connection with some closely related topic and the pupil applies them to a concrete situation as he learns them.

5. The newer books contain maps not overburdened with detail and of a number and variety that stimulate study of various phases of the country represented.

6. The number and variety of the illustrations have increased with the years. The newer illustrations have other value than merely breaking up the solid pages of reading matter.

7. The indices, by facilitating study, have developed into a usable part of the book.

8. Tables of statistics of greater value are added in the most recent book and those of traditional use, but of doubtful value, are eliminated.

EDUCATIONAL READINGS

ARTHUR, GRACE. *A Quantitative Study of the Results of Grouping First-Grade Classes According to Mental Age*, *JER*, 12:173–85, October, 1925.

Seven first-grade classes in the public schools of Chisholm, Minnesota, were arranged according to mental age. At the end of the first year, tests in vocabulary and reading were given and comparisons of achievement in terms of mental age were determined. The author feels justified in concluding that the factors "which condition the efficiency of the instruction of any given pupil in first-grade reading comprehension in the seven classes under investigation are not only the ability of the individual teacher but the mental age of the pupil and his degree of mental ability as compared with that of other pupils in the class."

DOLL, E. A. *A Special-Class Catechism*, *JER*, 12:186–200, October, 1925.

True to its title this article is set up in the form of a catechism. Numerous questions are presented and answered by the immediately succeeding paragraphs. The special-class child, the special-class teacher, principles and practice, and administrative considerations of the special class are each discussed in turn.

The teacher or administrator will find the perusal of this article decidedly worth his while.

SCHUTTE, T. H. *Is There Value in the Final Examination?* *JER*, 12:201–11, October, 1925.

This study, based upon an experiment tried with one hundred normal-school students, seems to indicate that the knowledge that there will be a final examination produces worth-while results It should not be inferred from the results of this study, however, that such knowledge will necessarily bring profit with elementary- and high-school students.

DAVIS, C. O. *North Central Association, Quinquennial Study*, *SR*, 33:494–509, September, 1925.

The study concerns itself with seven main groups of questions: (1) general organization of schools including the number of weeks in the school year, the number of periods in the school day, the length of the class period, and the units required for graduation; (2) pupils discussing enrollment figures by grades, sex, and teacher; (3) supervisory officers; (4) teachers considering the training, experience, and teaching load; (5) program of studies showing the number of pupils of either sex enrolled in each subject; (6) buildings and equipment including the percent of buildings new or remodeled since 1920, and those having special rooms such as auditorium, gymnasium, lunch room, and library; and (7) administrative policies including extra-curricular activities.

STRAYER, GEORGE D. *Professional Training for Superintendents of Schools*, *TCR*, 26:815–26, June, 1925.

Since the superintendents in the United States handle in the aggregate one and a half billions of dollars annually for current expenses and an additional two hundred million or three hundred million for new buildings and equipment, this public officer has the largest responsibility placed upon any governmental official in modern existence. Yet, in spite of such a stupendous expendi-

NOTE.—The abbreviations used in this number are: *JER*, Journal of Educational Research; *SR*, School Review; *TCR*, Teachers College Record; *JEP*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *PS*, Pedagogical Seminary; and *EJ*, English Journal.

ture, the real significance of the superintendent's work is measured only by the contribution which the schools make to the habits, skills, knowledge, appreciation, purposes, and ideals of those whom they are organized to serve.

To achieve adequate training for the task of being superintendent, the author holds that there may be three periods of training: a stage of learning, in which immediate contact with a school system is not essential; an analysis of a total situation into the many problems which demand solution, in which stage it is essential that the future superintendents be placed in direct contact with a school system and that upon the basis of their acquaintance with it, they define the more important problems which should be considered; and a final stage of training, in which they will divide themselves into two groups, the one composed of those who have had considerable experience in administrative work, and the other of those who have had little or no experience before entering upon the professional courses for superintendents of schools. For the inexperienced group an "interneship" in a progressive school system and under a capable administrator is suggested, where they would do intensive work in administration under close supervision. For the experienced group, it is suggested that some should return to administrative work while others should enter specialized fields with the added equipment which their training courses have provided.

OGDEN, ROBERT M. *The Nature of Intelligence*, *JEP*, 16:361–69, September, 1925.

The author refers to the symposium published in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* in 1921 in which fourteen American psychologists stated their individual views on the nature of intelligence. He adds to these fourteen definitions a fifteenth postulated by Charles Spearman, and then proceeds to suggest one of his own: "What then is the nature of intelligence? My answer is that the nature of intelligence is revealed by the contour and articulateness of experience. Whether the mode of experience in question is a picture to the eye, or a melodic sequence to the ear; whether it is a rhythmically balanced response felt as a course of action, or as a train of thought, the process in each case is intelligent in the degree in which it is articulate, compact, sharply outlined, and therefore precise and effective." Continuing, he says, "In order that we may understand the wide variety of intelligences of which the human mind is capable, we must study these and many other configurations of apprehension and response; we must determine the norms of completeness under the various conditions of instruction and special training which call them forth, and the bearing one upon the other at the empirical level of concrete behavior where tests of intelligence are necessarily made."

CHAPMAN, J. CROSBY AND WIGGINS, D. M. *Relation of Family Size to Intelligence of Offspring and Socio-Economic Status of Family*, PS, 32:414–21, September, 1925.

In this interesting and instructive study the variables measured are: size of family; intelligence quotient of offspring; and socio-economic status of family. The first was measured by means of a questionnaire answered by the children, the second by the National Intelligence Test, and the third by the Chapman-Sims Socio-Economic Scale. The subjects, about 1,000, were all the pupils in grades VI-VIII of the Meriden, Connecticut, schools.

The correlations among the three variables are shown in the following:

CORRELATIONS

Size of family and I. Q.	—.33 ± .024
Size of family and social status	—.27 ± .025
Social status and I. Q.	.32 ± .024

These results indicate that there is a tendency for the children of large families to be of inferior intelligence and conversely for the children of small families to be of superior intelligence, and for the largest families to be lowest in social status. The fairly significant *positive* correlation of .32—.024 between social status and intelligence quotient would indicate that the large number of children in a family is not the cause of its low social status but rather the reverse.

Another interesting point brought out was the apparent fact that educated mothers have more influence than do educated fathers in reducing the size of the family in the higher social strata.

PRESSEY, S. L. *A Statistical Study of Children's Errors in Sentence Structure*, *EJ*, 14:529–35, September, 1925.

In the words of the author this article "reports an attempt to determine the comparative frequency of different types of errors in sentence structure in written work." The source of data was 980 papers written by pupils in grades seven to twelve in the course of their regular class work.

The study deals with eleven different types of errors, summarized in statistical tables that show the frequency of each type of error per 10,000 words for each pair of grades, VII-VIII, IX-XI, XI-XII, the average for all grades; and a comparison of the results of this study with three similar studies. An outstanding feature of this table is the fact that practically every type of error, except the one the author calls "stringy sentences," occurs as frequently or more frequently in the upper grades than in grades VII and VIII. This shows decided lack of improvement from the seventh grade to the twelfth in mastery of sentence structure.

The author submits the following conclusions: errors in sentence structure appear to be about as common in the last two grades of high school as

in the seventh and eighth grade; in general, errors in sentence structure are of a few frequently recurring types; and two general types make up approximately one-half of all the errors.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H. *What Becomes of High-School Principals?* TCR, 26:846-55, June, 1925.

This well-known writer presents the results of an investigation of the withdrawal of thirty-five principals from high-school work during June, 1923. The inquiry was made to determine the reasons for such withdrawal, as well as to discover what activities claim the men after leaving school work. The two primary reasons for withdrawal are listed as inadequate salary and poor future prospects for sufficient income. Then follow in order of decreasing frequency; unsatisfactory relations with the board of education, poor prospects for professional advancement, desire for the advantage of a larger community, poor personal relations with official superiors, lack of professional responsibility, and criticism of personal contact by the community. Not one ex-principal checked unsatisfactory personal relations with his teachers. The post-school activities of these thirty-five men are listed as follows: eleven became agents for life insurance, one an agent for real estate, five became salesmen for school books or supplies, three became merchants, two lawyers, while the remainder took charge of church work with boys, recreational clubs, a building and loan association, a ranch, sold bonds, edited a newspaper, assisted the director of a geological survey, and one became a manufacturer.

IN PAPER COVERS

HANNA, G. C. *Occupational Efficiency of the Mentally Defective.* Minneapolis, Minnesota, University of Minnesota. 1924. 43 pp. (Educational Monograph No. 7)

This survey of the inmates of the Minnesota School for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics at Faribault reveals, says the author, an almost startling confirmation of the intelligence test. The results of these surveys seem to indicate that the results of intelligence tests which are carefully given and skillfully applied should constitute an index to the efficiency which industry may expect from adults who test under twelve years mentally.

SMITH, HOMER J. *Industrial Education in the Public Schools of Minnesota.* Minneapolis, Minnesota University of Minnesota. 1924. 153 pp. (Educational Monograph No. 6)

This monograph contains a detailed study of the history of industrial education in the public schools of Minnesota and describes the present practices with suggestions for improvement.

Auditorium Activities. Dallas, Texas, Board of Education, 1925. 100 pp.

This pamphlet contains the revised notes from the plan books of the teachers who directed the auditorium activities of certain Dallas schools for the past two years. The editor insists that the notes here given are suggestions rather than crystallized opinions. Teachers and principals who are responsible for assembly periods will no doubt find interesting suggestions in this pamphlet.

BREWER, JOHN M. *Mental Measurement in Educational and Vocational Guidance.* Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University, 1924. 46 pp. (Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. X)

Measurement, revealing the curve of interest and ability, helps the student decide on the field of his future educational effort. General intelligence tests, rating scales, aptitude tests, occupational and professional tests indicate, at least roughly, probable success or failure in a particular work, for "Definite choice should precede vocational education."

SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS. *The Public Schools of San Antonio.* San Antonio, Board of Education, 1924. 74 pp. (San Antonio Public School Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 1)

The Board of Education of San Antonio has published this bulletin to present information concerning the public-school system of that city. The school system has been reorganized on a 5-3-3 plan, and its subsequent development has awakened considerable attention throughout the country. The administration of the schools is described in some detail, the course of study is outlined, and reports of the enrollment are given.

SHERROD, CHARLES C. *The Administration of State Teachers Colleges through Faculty Committees.* Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1925. 122 pp.

By personal visits to forty-three state teachers colleges the author endeavored to find the answer to two questions: (1) What standing committees are needed by the president of a state teachers college to assist in the administration of the school? (2) What should be the function of these committees? An analysis of present practice revealed that there is a striking lack of agreement among schools as to what committees should exist and what duties should be assigned to each. Presidents, with few exceptions, recognize that standing committees are administrative bodies but do not give them authority commensurate with the responsibility. Too little attention has been given to the task of outlining the functions of the various committees, which leads to overlapping. The chairman is

often more than a presiding officer. Shifting of responsibility is common. Eighteen standing faculty committees are suggested. The functions which each committee is supposed to perform are given in detail. The appendices give a wealth of information concerning present committees and practices.

HECKMAN, ALBERT W. *Paintings of Many Lands and Ages.* New York, (415 Madison Avenue), Art Extension Society, 1925. 63 pp.

This introduction to picture study and art appreciation has been prepared to accompany some ninety color reproductions of paintings which have been selected by the Art Extension Society for study in the elementary grades and in the high school. The author attempts to turn the emphasis from the present tendency toward historical, biographical, and anecdotal attributes of fine paintings to a study of "the way in which the artist, in achieving fine form in his pictures, has instinctively or consciously, combined intelligent use of his medium with aspiration."

In addition to the introductory chapters on "The Child and Picture Study," "Art Appreciation," "Classroom Practice," the author suggests methods of picture analysis and gives several actual lesson plans. The larger portion of this booklet is devoted to the analyses of the pictures listed and to biographical notes of the several artists.

BOOKS TO READ

SHARP, RUSSELL A. *Teaching English in High Schools.* Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1924. 155 pp. (Riverside Educational Monograph)

Within one hundred and fifty pages the author finds space not only to discuss the teaching of English in the high school but also to summarize the requisites of a teacher and to give a short lecture on extra-curricular activities. The author is closely in touch with the improved methods of teaching English, and he discusses them with fairness and clarity. Brief summaries of the advantages and disadvantages of such innovations of method as the project and the socialized recitation together with many practical suggestions for classroom procedure are excellent features of this small volume.

SEARS, J. B. *The School Survey.* New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925. 440 pp.

Within this comprehensive volume are included discussions of the larger problems of administration, of problems of internal administration and management, and of efficiency of instruction and supervision. This book is not prepared for the school-survey expert, but rather will be of use to the graduate student in school administration and to the principals and superintendents at work in the field.

ALMACK, J. C. AND LANG, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925. 325 pp.

In this useful handbook for young teachers seventeen problems with which all teachers should be familiar are discussed. Although the discussions are not exhaustive sufficient detail is given to suggest a scientific approach to the consideration of certain educational problems.

HOLZINGER, KARL J. *Statistical Tables for Students in Education and Psychology.* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1925. 74 pp.

Dr. Buckingham reviewing this book for the *Journal of Educational Research* says: "We believe that this set of tables is sensibly selected. Students of statistics and workers in the field will have real use for it. Most workers in educational statistics will deal with populations small enough for the application of these tables of squares and square roots, products, and quotients. The four-place logarithms will suffice for ordinary work. In education and psychology the limits of reliability are such that the extreme refinement of such operations is often mere pedantry."

ANDRUS, RUTH. *A Tentative Inventory of the Habits of Children from Two to Four Years of Age.* New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. 50 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 160)

Dr. Andrus has developed an inventory of the habits of the pre-school child based on data secured by 67 members of the class in kindergarten-primary education during more than one thousand hours in which they observed 52 children in four nursery schools. The author suggests two possible uses for this inventory: (1) "as a means of training teachers in more accurate observation of the children and in knowledge of the habits and educability of children from two to four," and (2) "as an instrument for the appraisal of the abilities of children of these ages with possible diagnostic and prognostic value."

SUZZALO, HENRY. *Our Faith in Education.* Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1924. 103 pp.

This little book, concerned chiefly with the social significance of education, can be cordially recommended to teachers, for it will improve their knowledge of public schools as the "chief supports of a democratic system of life organized to give liberty and happiness a wider spread."

EDUCATION WEEK PUBLICITY IN THE UNITED STATES

P. R. STEVENSON
Ohio State University

Education Week has become a national institution. The President has issued a proclamation urging that it be observed throughout the country, and he has requested the governors to issue similar proclamations asking that the week be appropriately celebrated in their respective states. During the four years in which it has been observed, the American Legion, the United States Bureau of Education, and the National Education Association have distributed materials and suggestions which have made the observance of the week worth while.

While collecting a large mass of material on continuous school publicity from cities all over the United States, the writer received many accounts of the activities during Education Week. Some of the practices followed by cities throughout the country will be outlined and briefly discussed in this article.

The press.—The press has had an active part in telling the public about the schools during Education Week. In a few cases, a special issue dealing entirely with the problems of the schools was distributed. Some of the merchants devoted part, or all, of their regular advertising space to school facts and interests. Frequently the general program for the week was published in the Sunday paper and the special daily program on each succeeding day. If the superintendent and his staff cooperated to the fullest degree with the editors, notices of all the special activities, articles on various phases of education, essays written by pupils, and interesting editorials were published.

Publications of the school.—Many special issues of high-school papers were devoted to articles dealing with general education topics rather than local school news. In some instances, boards of education having mimeographed or printed house-organs prepared special issues and distributed them to the majority of the school patrons. Special bulletins were also issued by boards or superintendents which dealt with general and special questions in education. For example, the public schools of Trenton, New Jersey, published an interesting bulletin which answered the following questions: (1) What is a school? (2) What does a school do? (3) How does a school do its work? and (4) What can you do for the school? Other bulletins gave the program for the week, named the schools and stores where exhibits were to be found, gave the time and place of various meetings, and extended an invitation to all parents to visit the school.

Radio.—Few communities have, as yet, made extensive use of the radio. Some state universities and a few cities have broadcast programs during education week. Short talks about school activities by pupils, teachers, and citizens; short lectures on educational problems; musical numbers by school organizations; and brief statements concerning education given by the regular announcer are among the types of publicity in which the radio has been used.

Motion pictures and slides.—The cooperation of the motion-picture industry is not difficult to secure. Many superintendents prepared slides carrying terse statements about education, which were shown throughout the week in the neighborhood picture houses. Motion pictures of actual school activities, classes of physical education, cooking, sewing, and manual training were taken and displayed at the various theaters of the community.

Open house for school patrons.—Hundreds of cities opened their schools for public inspection during the week.

One superintendent reports: "We used all efforts this year to bring the personality of our teachers in direct contact with parents and patrons. To do this we opened a school during the noon hour for business men. We operated a section of the junior high school in the county court house. It attracted a great deal of attention and was a decided success."

In addition to the regular classes, some cities held classes at night and patrons were thus permited to see the regular work of the school. Exhibits of pupils' work were often displayed together with charts showing school progress and conditions. In a few cases, pupils were given tags to wear which carried statements such as "My folks have visited school — have yours?" This device was quite effective in bringing visitors to the school plant. Invitations to patrons containing a few pertinent statements concerning the education of today also functioned with efficiency. Schools near the business district invited Chambers of Commerce, Rotary, Kiwanis, and other clubs to hold their regular luncheons in the school cafeterias. This gave an opportunity for the men to visit the schools and to hear something about educational activities.

Exhibits and demonstrations in store windows.—In some cities, many shoppers were greatly surprised during Education Week to discover the peculiar use which was made of the display windows in stores. Classes of home-economics girls were preparing meals, boys from the manual-arts departments were making and finishing pieces of furniture, kindergarten classes were in full swing, and many displays and exhibits of school work were in evidence.

Addresses.—On different occasions, many short talks and addresses were given. In practically all the churches the sermons on Sunday of this week were devoted to some phase of education, and similar subjects formed the basis for discussion in Sunday schools and Young People's meetings. Talks were also given at Parent-Teacher-Association meetings, fraternal organizations, school assemblies, women's clubs, labor unions, and civic clubs.

Entertainments and parades.—Many schools prepared special programs which included musical entertainments, pageants, plays, and special dinners for fathers and mothers. Elaborate parades were also arranged. Floats showing school activities were decorated by the teachers and pupils, and banners showing school posters, slogans, and similar materials gave interest and variety to the event.

Visits to homes.—In a few cities each teacher visited the parents of her pupils. This meant a busy week for the teacher, but the reports indicate that the effort was very much worth while.

Sources of information.—The following publications will be helpful to the busy superintendent who is making plans for the week. They may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

How, Why, and When to Prepare for American Education Week. A pamphlet of 32 pages which contains general suggestions for organization of the activities for the week, descriptions of successful efforts with mention of attractive devices employed, specific material for each day, references to suitable literature, and hints for lessons and other exercises in the schools. Price, 5 cents per copy.

Broadside. This contains new articles written for the occasion by distinguished writers, and also general information, statistics, and quotations useful for newspaper articles and addresses. Price, 5 cents per copy.

School Life. The October number of this publication will be an American Education Week number and will contain suggestive material, with illustrations. Price, 5 cents per copy.

Suggestions for the Observance of American Education Week. These suggestions will be distributed by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, November 17–23, 1924.

The bulletin *Taking Stock of Schools* may be obtained from the National Education Association at 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C. Price, 25 cents per copy.